XVII APRIL, 1927 No. 7

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

A Representative Monthly of Things Japanese

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

A REPRESENTATIVE MONTHLY OF THINGS JAPANESE

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Subscriptions:

In the Japanese Empire, (postpaid) per year in advance - *Yen* 5.50

In Foreign Countries, (postpaid) per year in advance - - $ 3.00

Single Copy- - - - - - - - - - - - - 50 sen (25 cents)

Foreign subscriptions should be remitted by P.O. or express money order, to The Japan Magazine Co., 6 Itchome Uchisaiwai-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

Agents:

Maruzen Company, Tokyo
Kyo-Bun-Kwan, Tokyo
Kawa-e Nissindo, Kobe
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Houses demolished.

Villagers fleeing to places of safety.

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THE AFTERMATH OF THE CATASTROPHE

Villages in peaceful ignorance of the coming cataclysm.

The floods that followed the earthquake of March 7.

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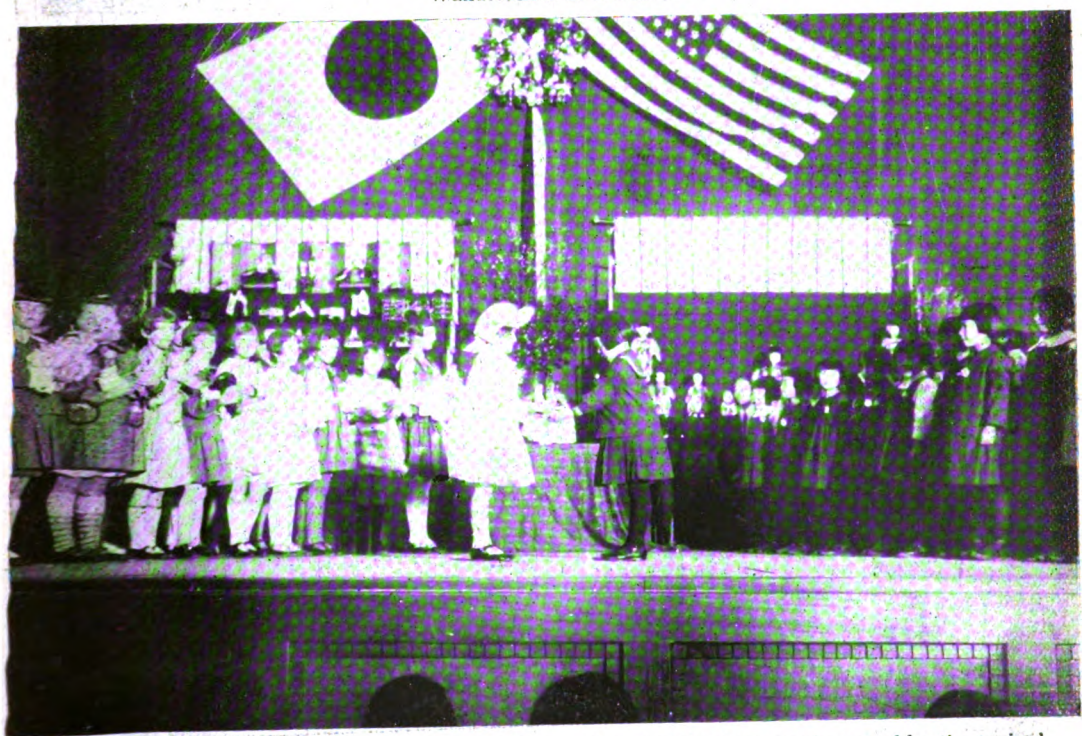
The Departure of the French Ambassador, M. Paul Claudel and Madame Claudel. Premier Wakatsuki is at the left.



The reception of the American dolls in Tokyo Great enthusiasm was aroused by the arrival of these little immigrants.

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Upper: Mr. Katsutaro Inahata, President of the Osaka Chamber of Commerce, Member of the House of Peers.

Lower: Dr. Matsuichiro Takayanagi, Secretary of the Osaka Chamber of Commerce.

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

A REPRESENTATIVE MONTHLY OF THINGS JAPANESE

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The Great March Earthquake

FOR the second time in there years, a disastrous earthquake has overtaken western Japan, and in practically the same region which was devastated by the shock in the spring of 1925. This makes the third seismic disaster suffered by Japan in five years, the first of the three having been the cataclysm of 1923.

The earthquake of March 7, 1927, began at 6.28 o'clock in the evening. The center of the disturbance was in Miyazu Bay, on the coast of the Sea of Japan, in Kyoto Prefecture, in that part of it which is known as the Tango district.

The great cities of Osaka, Kyoto, and Kobe are all in that part of Japan, and all suffered more or less from the shock.

The greatest damage, however, was done in the towns of Amino, Mineyama, Yamada, Kuchiono, Kaetsu, Iwataki, and Kumihama, some of which were practically wiped out by the earthquake and the fires and floods that followed,—the latter, however, being a coincidence and having no relation to the earthquake.

According to official reports, in the four counties of Upper Tango alone, 2,690 persons were killed, 6,425 were injured, and 103 are missing, while 10,357 houses were demolished by the earthquake and 2,999 were burnt by the succeeding fires.

As the population before the earthquake was 128,397, inhabiting 26,117 houses, the casualties were nearly 8 per cent of the former, while 50 per cent of the dwellings were lost.

In Osaka Prefecture there were 121 casualties, 54 houses demolished by the shock and 32 burnt. In Hyogo Prefecture, where Kobe is situated, there were 15 casualties, 79 houses demolished and 32 burnt.

The towns of Mineyama, Kaetsu and Amino were the center of a flourishing industry producing chirimen silk cloth, so-called crepe de chine. The value of the annual output amounted to about 100,000,000 yen. This industry has been wiped out for the time being, consequently the economic loss is a huge one, aside from the material damage done.

Relief measures were promptly undertaken. The Throne donated 50,000 yen to Kyoto Prefecture and 1,000 yen to Osaka Prefecture. His Majesty the Emperor is reported to have been greatly agitated and to have spent sleepless hours at night awaiting reports from the scene of the disaster.

Relief funds were opened by newspapers and other agencies, by which money and material were sent to the aid of the suffering districts.

Rescue parties were sent by the Army and Navy Departments, with food, clothing and shelter materials, and also by other organizations. They had great difficulty in reaching Amino and surrounding district, on account of the earthquake having destroyed the railroad and mountain highways, while a great storm at sea

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made landing almost impossible.

The police and Young Men's Societies also made strenuous efforts to aid in the rescue.

Twenty-four hours after the earthquake, a heavy snow storm raged throughout the stricken district, followed in succeeding days by floods, so the sufferings of the homeless people from lack of food, clothing and shelter were almost indescribable.

Communications, however, were gradually restored, and much has been done in the way of relief measures.

An aviator, who flew over the scene of destruction shortly after the earthquake, reported that the region was covered by thick white smoke, filling the mountains and valleys. At one town, a few houses that had escaped stood grimly like skeletons.

Ama-no-hashidate, one of the places famed as the three scenic beauties of Japan, a long, narrow, sandy spit stretching out into the Bay of Miyajima, and thus in the center of the disturbance, fortunately was not injured.

The American Ambassador Mr. MacVeagh and his son and daughter-in-law. The latter are visiting Japan.

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Japan at Work

The Iron Industry

THE iron industry on the modern system in Japan was started in 1896, when the Government Steel Works were established at Yawata, Kyushu. The plant commenced actual work in 1905 and has been gradually extended with the growth of requirements for its products.

In the meantime, not a few private iron and steel works came into being, necessitated and encouraged by the development of industry in general and more especially of the shipbuilding and machine industries after the Japan-Russia War, including the Hokkaido Iron Works, the Kobe Steel Works, the Sumitomo Steel Works, the Kawasaki Shipbuilding Yards, the Japan Steel Works and the Japan Steel Tube Co., besides which the Kamaishi Works were established much earlier. All these were, however, on a very small scale, and until 1913, or before the World War, most of the iron produced in Japan was from the Government works.

Upon the outbreak of the war, the importation of foreign iron and steel was greatly restricted, while the shipbuilding and machine industries here were much enlarged. This gave great stimulus to the national iron and steel industry, and it was much extended.

These were in 1915 six new plants of not less than 5,000 tons yearly capacity. In 1916, seven more were started, in 1917, 14 more came into existence and in 1918, six more were erected, all of which added to the older establishments made a total of about forty, to mention those of not less than 5,000 tons yearly capacity.

The output of iron and steel in the country increased remarkably and reached twice as much as the pre-war figure, including over 50 per cent. produced by private works. The capital invested in the industry was doubled, too. In 1913, it amounted to 160,000,000 yen, but at the end of 1918, it stood at 300,000,000 yen.

The termination of the war brought about a reaction all over the world, in consequence of which the price of iron declined heavily and comparatively cheap foreign iron and steel came to be imported considerably again. This obliged not a few small private iron and steel works to close temporarily or permanently, and the big works suffered much from the foreign imports.

The demand for iron and steel in Japan increased, however, more than covered by the remarkable expansion of the domestic industry since the World War. This made Japan still an importer of the goods in large quantities. In 1913, Japan imported 270,000 tons, of pig iron valued at 11,400,000 yen, and 530,000 tons, of iron bars, etc. valued at 54,000,000 yen, but in 1924, the former increased to 456,000 tons, valued at 24,000,000 yen, and the latter to 1,150,000 tons, valued at 200,000,000 yen. In 1925, the figures decreased a little, but no greatd iminution may be expected for some time to come.

The following table exhibits the pro-

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duction, importation and consumption of pig iron, iron bars, etc. since 1913, the consumption representing figures left after balancing the production and importation:—

Year.	Pig Iron. Production. Tons	Pig Iron. Importation. Tons	Pig Iron. Consumption. Tons	Iron Bars, Etc. Production. Tons	Iron Bars, Etc. Importation. Tons	Iron Bars, Etc. Consumption. Tons
1913 .	242,676	273,310	515,628	254,952	527,626	753,578
1917 .	402,792	235,082	694,552	513,445	675,204	1,136,910
1918 .	606,428	267,741	873,023	539,637	651,467	1,130,097
1919 .	612,609	348,707	959,422	552,601	724,991	1,172,352
1920 .	529,875	390,298	917,659	537,461	1,039,452	1,479,533
1921 .	480,300	276,284	752,891	561,829	646,801	1,123,422
1922 .	559,310	409,606	965,217	662,092	1,100,838	1,680,763
1923 .	610,751	429,442	1,034,962	819,694	799,177	1,521,365
1924 .	598,405	520,122	1,111,257	906,280	1,154,402	1,971,882
1925 .	696,111	402,568	1,092,176	1,102,883	532,891	1,537,556

The World War having caused the temporary suspension of importation of foreign iron and steel, it became more urgently necessary than before to develop domestic industry. In order to consider proper means the Iron Industrial Investigation Commission was appointed in 1916

After careful consideration of the question, the commission proposed to the Government the exemption of taxes on the industry and the application of the Land Expropriation Law to it. On the basis of this proposal, the Government enacted the Iron Industrial Encouragement Law in 1917.

The industry attained marked development during the war, but later, it was severely affected by the post-war economic depression. The Government thereupon questioned the Special Economic and Financial Investigation Commission in 1920 as to how to fundamentally improve the industry.

Subsequently, the Government altered part of the Iron Industrial Encouragement Law and raised the import duties, in accordance with the commission's suggestion, but as to the more important part of the suggestion, namely, the proposed organization of a syndicate among the iron and steel works in existence for the purpose of jointly managing the industry, the Government authorities thought it necessary to carry on further investigations regarding it.

The condition of the industry not improving for all that, the Government wished to establish a national policy regarding the industry, and appointed an iron and steel industrial investigation committee at the end of 1924.

The committee met about ten times, after which it resolved that the iron and steel indusrry in Japan should be carried on as a semi-official enterprise, with the Government Steel Works as the centre, and a special commission should be appointed for combining the official and private parties concerned in the project.

Consequently, the Iron and Steel Con-

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ference was established at the end of 1925, consisting of some official and private members. This conference at first arranged for the distribution of production among the official and private iron manufactures and considered a method of jointly buying pig iron for them.

As stated before, the Iron Industrial Encouragement Law was enacted in 1917 and was amended in part in 1921. In March, 1926, it was completely revised, and the manufacturers of iron bars, etc. from pig iron came to be granted a fixed amount of subsidy in addition to the previous protection.

It was also stated that in 1921, the import tariff was raised to meet the trade depression after the war, and in 1926, the duties were enhanced at the time of the general revision of the import tariff.

Iron ore is comparatively limited in Japan, but there is an almost inexhaustible supply of iron sand here. In 1926, the Government granted aid to the students of iron sand refining, as the discovery of an economical refining method would remove the fear caused by the lack of domestic supply of raw material for the iron industry.

At the same time, the foreign sources of supply were investigated, and men were sent by the Government to French-Indo-China to investigate iron mines there.

The Aluminium Industry

The yearly amount of aluminium consumed in Japan is 4,500 tons, bought entirely from foreign countries in the proportion of 40 per cent. from America, 20 per cent. from Norway, 20 per cent. from France and the rest from England, etc. The imports are nearly entirely, say 99 per cent., in ingots and slabs and partly plates, sheets, foils, etc., very little being brought in in the form of castings or manufactures.

The following table shows the importation of aluminium since 1915 and its average import price per ton:—

Year.	Quantity. *Tons*	Value. *Yen*	Average Import Price Per Ton. *Yen*
1915 .	500	450,000	900
1918 .	886	1,670,000	1,880
1921 .	1,809	1,811,000	1,000
1922 .	3,936	3,073,000	780
1923 .	3,600	3,050,000	850
1924 .	3,903	4,136,000	1,060
1925 .	4,600	5,860,000	1,270

The imported goods are made into wire, plates or sheets, up to 50 or 60 per cent., which are used in the making of table ware and other articles. Of the remainder, 20 per cent. is employed in the manufacture of twisted wires for high tension electric transmission and another 20 per cent. is cast.

There are at present over 100 aluminium rolling mills and factories in Japan, and 40 per cent. of the total output is taken up by the Furukawa Electric Industrial Co.

Aluminium tableware and other aluminium manufactures, together with rollings, are exported to the yearly value of over 500,000 yen, chiefly to China and South Sea countries, and in 1925, the figure reached 1,339,000 yen.

The wholesale price of aluminium in Japan is nearly equivalent to the price in New York, converted into Japanese currency. The following table gives the

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prices in New York since 1916:—

Year.	Price in New York. Per Lb.		Converted into Japanese Currency. Per Ton	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
	Cents	*Cents*	*Yen*	*Yen*
1916 .	67.00	53.00	2,948	2,332
1917 .	64.00	35.00	2,816	1,540
1918 .	33.00	32.00	1,452	1,408
1919 .	33.00	29.00	1,452	1,276
1920 .	32.75	22.00	1,441	880
1921 .	26.00	17.00	1,144	748
1922 .	23.00	16.50	1,011	726
1923 .	27 75	22.50	1,221	990
1924 .	29.00	27.00	1,276	1,188
1925*.	30.00		1,320	

* Average.

The above prices were for common aluminium ingots of 98-89%. The rate of conversion is $ 40 per 100 yen, and the recent prices in Japan have been a little higher.

In 1916, the Japan Aluminium Manufacturing Co. was established in Osaka and it started the manufacture of aluminium to the monthly amount of 2 tons, getting alumina from white clay, but the work had to be temporarily given up after the World War.

In 1925, Mr. Yamazaki of the Tokyo Industrial Laboratory succeeded in making alumina of clay and alum, and this is called the sulphate of ammonia process. Later, Mr. Tanaka invented two other processes, treating clay with sulphuric acid and with lime sulphide, and these processes were patented.

The Mitsubishi Mining Co. also invented a process of treating clay, and the Taisei Chemical Industrial Co. has a process to treat alum phosphate with caustic soda and lime.

New Woollen Industry

In 1922, 1923 and 1924, woollen cloths and serges were produced in Japan to the following extent:—

(In Thousands)

	1922.		1923.		1924.	
	Quant. Yds.	Value. Yen	Quant. Yds.	Value. Yen	Quant. Yds.	Value. Yen
Serges for Foreign Clothing . . .	2,561	8,071	1,981	6,713	3,402	11,025
Striped Woollen Cloth . . .	2,218	6,800	2,474	7,488	2,630	8,070
Plain, Pepper-and-Salt and Other Cloths .	3,957	13,407	3,307	10,092	4,246	12,101
Total . . .	8,736	28,260	7,763	24,295	10,279	31,196

During the same years, woollen and cotton mixture woollen cloths and serges were imported into Japan as follows:

(In Thousands)

		1922.		1923.		1924	
		Quant. Sq. Yds.	Value. Yen	Quant. Sq. Yds.	Value. Yen	Quant. Sq. Yds.	Value Yen
Woollen Cloths and Serges:	A.	2,286	4,090	2,935	4,889	3,691	5,457
	B.	8,634	22,439	8,371	17,338	13,006	26,941
	Other	632	2,066	606	1,292	1,011	3,118
Cotton Mixture Woollen Cloths and Serges:	A.	1,849	2,176	2,509	2,810	3,678	3,870
	B.	5,293	8,217	6,184	8,335	6,718	8,883
	Other	3,937	5,453	5,029	5,755	5,997	7,898
Total . . .		22,631	44,441	25,634	40,419	34,101	55,267

A=Not more than 200 grams per square metre
B= ,, ,, ,, 500 ,, ,, ,, ,,

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As to the exportation of woollen cloths and serges, it amounted to 114,000 yards valued at 281,000 yen in 1922, 155,000 yards valued at 562,000 yen in 1923 and 134,000 yards valued at 383,000 yen in 1924.

The Soda Ash Industry

The soda ash industry was started governmentally in 1885, when sulphuric acid and some other chemicals also were made. Later, the industry was made over to a private party.

At one time there were many soda ash factories established, but all failed owing to circumstances detrimental to their development, except only two, which were in existence before the World War, producing the article by the old Leblanc process and filling about one-tenth of the demand in the country. The demand was then mostly met by the product of Brunner, Mond & Co., of England.

The present ammonium process was adopted on the outbreak of the war, when England restricted officially the exportation of the article. This had a severe effect on the glass and other industries in Japan. In addition the Leblanc process was considered to be quite uneconomical.

In 1916, the Asahi Glass Co. erected a factory at Makiyama, Fukuoka Prefecture, which was followed by one at Tokuyama, Yamaguchi Prefecture by the Japan Soda Industrial Co. and one at Takao, Formosa, by the Formosan Fertilizer Co., all on a small scale and in experimental operation.

These manufacturers took great pains in acquiring the art of manufacture, which was kept quite secret. They devoted many years' efforts and millions of capital to research, until one or two years ago, when they were at last technically successful in production.

The end of the war made the supply of soda ash plentiful again, in addition to which natural soda from a lake in East Africa appeared in the market and entered upon keen competition with the English goods, resulting in a heavy fall in the price of the article. This made the production of the article unprofitable, and all the factories were closed up, except the Asahi Glass Factory.

Afterwards, the competition ceased and the market improved to a degree. But the price of material salt has not declined sufficiently as yet since then, and the Japanese factories have been unable to resume work.

Even the Asahi Glass Factory has a capacity of only 50 tons daily, making a yearly total of 15,000 tons, valued at 1,500,000 yen. It has been continuing work unprofitably, compelled by the necessity of using its product itself.

The Japan Soda Industrial Co. is said to be likely to resume work at an early date, and when its yearly capacity of 12,000 tons is added to the Asahi's, the total yearly production of the article in Japan will come to 27,000 tons, 20 per cent. of the yearly demand of 150,000 tons, most of which is imported and will have to be imported, necessarily, hereafter.

During the four years from 1922, soda ash was imported as follows:

(In thousands of Tons and Yen)

Year	Quant.	Value	Year	Quant.	Value
1922	93	5,010	1924	118	5,910
1923	91	4,460	1925	130	7,830

In Kwantung Province, China, Japan-

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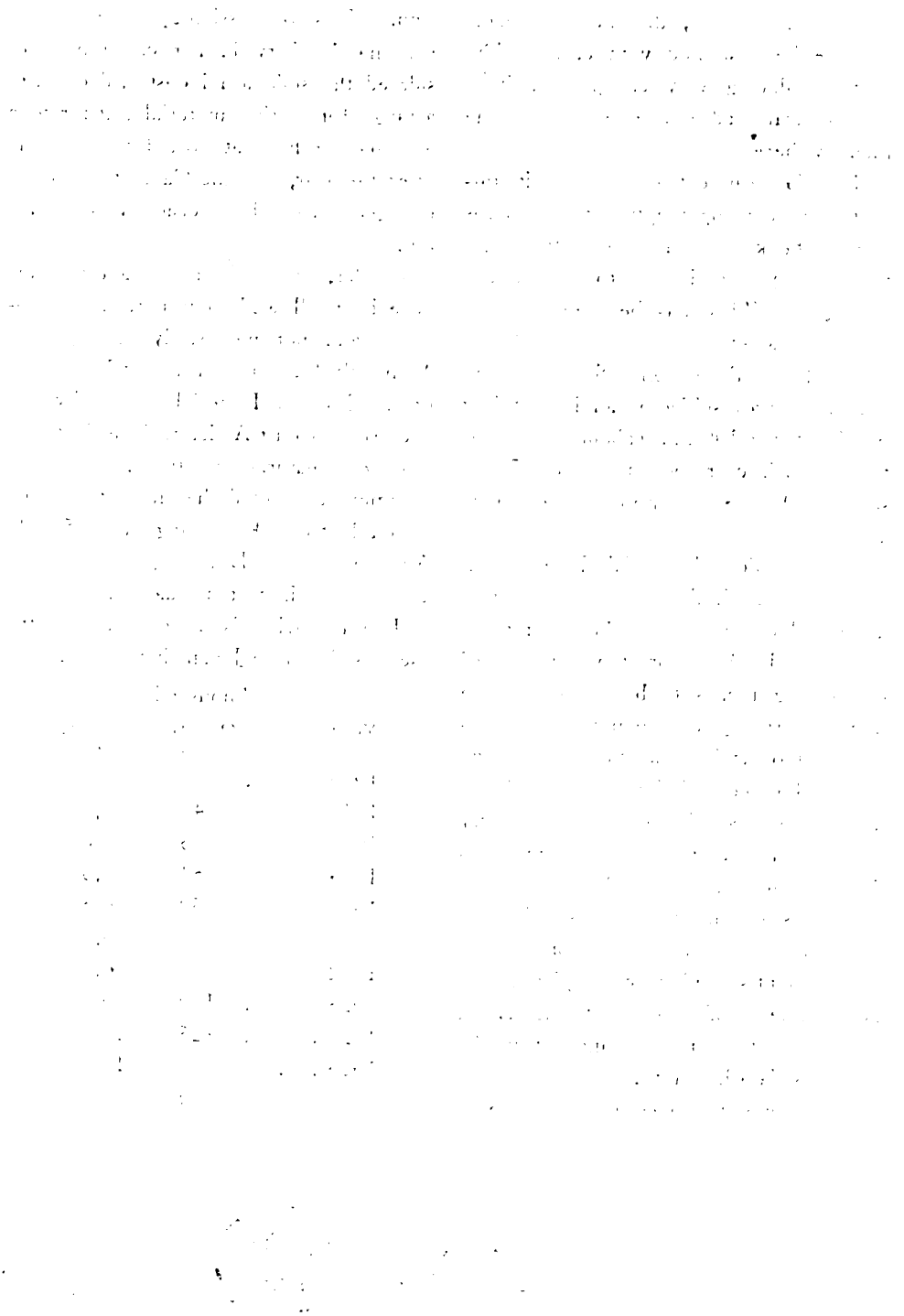

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ese leased territory, the industry seems to have been studied with care. The place producing very cheap salt, it is geographically advantageous to start the industry there.

The Government considering it important to develop the industry, which is one of the key chemical industries, has taken every occasion to foster and encourage it. This may be seen from the following facts:—

1. Tariff Protection.—Soda ash and natural soda are subject to an import duty of 35 sen per 100 kin (about 6 yen per ton), which corresponds to about 7 per sent. of the present import price c. i. f. Japan.

2. Chemical Industrial Investigation Commission.—This commission was appointed officially upon the outbreak of the World War for the purpose of considering means to be taken for the domestic supply of chemicals, the importation of which was supended by the war. The commission recognized the importance of starting a soda ash industry by the ammonia process and suggested to the Government the establishment of an official research institute on a small scale. This suggestion was acted upon and the Government started at once a plan for its establishment officially, but the Asahi Glaas Co. took it over and set up its present soda ash factory.

3. Economic Investigation Commission.—This commission appointed by the Okuma Ministry having carefully considered the soda ash industry, decided to arrange for getting material salt for soda ash making here at cost for ten years after the war, but the Cabinet personnel changed before the decision was carried out.

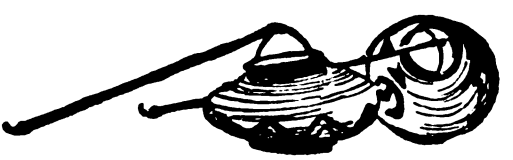
Besides, the soda ash manufacturers have been allowed to import salt themselves and not necessarily through the Monopoly Bureau. Professor Nishikawa of the Kyushu Imperial University has been sent to East Africa to investigate the mining of natural soda there. The Government exempted the import duty on soda ash from Kwantung in 1925. In April, 1926, the Dumping Law became applicable to imported soda ash.

The following is an estimate of the use of soda ash in Japan since 1916:—

(In Thousands)

Year	Quantity *Tons*	Value *Yen*
1916 . . .	38	5'000
1917 . . .	44	9,000
1918 . . .	55	13,000
1919 . . .	54	6,500
1920 . . .	50	6,500
1921 . . .	56	4,300
1922 . . .	90	6,300
1923 . . .	100	6,000
1924 . . .	125	10,000
1925 . . .	140	14,000

(To be Continued)



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The Current Thought of Japan

(V)

By Dr. Toru Nagai

Formerly Director of the Labour-Capital Reconciliation Society

COMMENT should be made on the relation of the idea of the state to that of society in this country, particularly the relation between the conception of the national polity and that of society at large.

The idea of the national constitution of Japan which has a profound bearing upon the development of social consciousness has given rise to various important questions, no less than the conception of the national polity had a close connection with the development of political thought in the earlier part of the Meiji Era. Careful consideration should be given to this by the Japanese people.

Mr. Yukichi Fukuzawa, the Mita Sage, openly stated in one of his essays, "A Comment on the Imperial Japanese Family," as early as May in the fifteenth year of Meiji (1882), that the politics of Japan would resolve into an atmosphere of cons.itutional parliamentarianism and that it was necessary to take into deep consideration the future of the Imperial Family.

Mr. Fukuzawa handled the question in varied lights. He said: "The Imperial Family is an organ for controlling all affairs of the State, but not for dealing with those affairs," "The Japanese Imperial House is the centre of the affections of all the people; its virtues are regarded as superhuman," and "While politics is a temporary aspect of government, the Imperial House is eternal." He again said: "What reason can there be for entangling such a permanent family with an uncertain government, still less for having the Sacred Family involved in politics?" "The Japanese Imperial Family should be regarded as the source of benevolence to the people, whatever the case may be, therefore, the Sacred Family should not be drawn into the center of internal wrangles."

In this manner Mr. Fukuzawa dealt with the subject of reverence for the Emperor and the Imperial Household in May, 1882 and September, 1888. However, the advocates of the Restoration in those days did not share his opinion.

Although the theory of reverence for the Imperial Family maintained by Mr. Fukuzawa and others in the early part of Meiji was admitted by a part of the loyalists, the greater part of the Japanese people were inclined to consider the Imperial Household in a somewhat different light; the general trend forced the people to make a peculiar interpretation of the national polity as well as of the State itself.

Opinions regarding the national constitution expressed by the people were apt to be intermingled with alien ideas imported from Europe. In Europe the conception of the divine right of kings in the Mediaeval Age, the state of Christianity, from which emanated the theory of the divine power of the state and that of sovereignty conferred upon a ruler by God, has until very recently been closely

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connected with the principle of the national constitution in Germany, Russia and Austlia.

That theory was introduced into Japan in her second period of the development of political thought; the mystic interpretation of the idea of a State in the West became combined with Japan's mythological conception of the national polity. The result was that Japan's national constitution was often described as mystic, unparalleled in the world.

The advocates of the theory went so far as to combine that conception with the political and social organization of the country.

While the Peace Preservation Act was in discussion in the Imperial Diet some time ago I made a remark on the law to my superiors in the two Houses and the Privy Council. I said: "Such legislation, as is calculated to make the people regard the idea of private ownership, that is the recent economic organization based upon capitalism, as if absolutely involved with the national polity of Japan, should be avoided by all means." However, my argument was not accepted in the long run.

Evidently enough, many social questions and movements have occurred in the country of late, and the people's thought regarding society is now unstable. Some people may say that Japan's national constitution is too peculiar to admit Western thought in connection with social problems, social movements and social consciousness and that the Sacred Imperial Family is at the head of the populace. They would repress the people's socialistic ideas and defend the national polity by combining the principle of the ultra-lofty influence of the Imperial Family with the present condition of Japanese society as it is. Such a dogmatic conclusion should be avoided.

On the other hand, if Japan's national constitution should be displayed to the full all over the world, the first thing to be done is to clarify the idea of the national polity itself. Then the national polity will remain eternally intact, as long as the country itself flourishes.

I do not hesitate in the least to openly declare this, from the sole motive of being concerned with the future of the country and the Imperial Household. Most likely nobody was allowed to make such an utterance as this in the second stage of the development of political thought in the country, the Meiji Era.

In the many books on the national polity published in Japan I have not been fortunate enough to find anybody arguing as I am doing; they are inclined to depict the country as a sort of mystic land governed by a divine power, otherwise they would try not to interfere with the national constitution. They refrain from expressing their views against the commomplace opinion of the national polity shared by the greater part of the people. What is the result? They simply mislead people as to the idea of the national constitution.

Scholars and intellectuals avoid commenting openly on the subject, lest they suffer misfortune arising from a slip of the tongue. I, on the contrary, always venture to refer to the problem of the national polity whenever I discuss the question of national thought.

In this country they have been used to consider the sovereign as identified with

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the State; such a conception has governed the people in general. "L'état, c'est Moi" has remained the people's general idea.

Although it goes without saying that despotism is inconsistent with constitutionalism, the ruler has still been considered the State itself. They emphasize that the ruler who is the sole source of the highest virtue and justice is the personification of the State. After the Western manner, they insist doggedly on the theory that God is the ruler and the ruler is State. From this theory such views as the divine power of the State or the ruler's power conferred by God have emanated.

The social contract and the sovereignty of the people are the counterpart of the above theory of divinity. In the earlier part of the Meiji Era the advocates of clan ascendency stuck to the principle, "L'état, c'est Moi." Even in the second period of Meiji, the greater part of the people were apt to entertain this idea. It was generally conceived that voting a Government official to the Government holding the reins was an expression of faithfulness to the Government, which represented the country, and consequently of loyalty to the Sovereign.

Few people now consider that the Government is the State itself, but during the Meiji Era the ruler was regarded as the State or Government, which resulted in confounding the Imperial House with administrative offices.

People thought the State and society were one and the same thing; they only considered the relation of the ruler to the people or the relation between the State and the individual. Nobody conceived of "society" existing beside the "State," in the first and second stages of Meiji.

Particularly, as Japan is a unique country in which is fully developed the family system and the organization of a racial nation, the natural result was that people always referred to the conception of the State, which was combined by them with the ruler.

The other day on the occasion of a graduation ceremony at a certain University in this country, the President in his brief address emphasized that the sole principle of the institution was to minister to the State,—a revelation of pure nationalism. Congratulatory addresses by the Ministers of Education and Justice which followed it referred to the personal service of the students for the State and 'society.'

I spoke a few words after them, and remarked that today state ministers, even, emphasize the students' duty to "society." Even a primary school boy will say: "For the sake of society." Now Japan is in transition from the conception of the State to that of society. It is now high time to establish an entirely new idea of culture and civilization on the stablized basis of society built up after going through the great work of the Restoration. In this way I supplemented what the President told the students. Perhaps they did not misunderstand what I said.

Now that half a century has passed since the Meiji Restoration, everything has changed, including the tendency of the people's thought. No wonder striking vicissitudes have been experienced in social thought by the people. In the past nobody objected to the idea that the State is society. Now the world is hard to live in; one must work for a living and

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struggle to get work.

The present-day economic life is so full of agonies that it is far from being well stabilized or replenished. Society involved in the State has now begun to be active, so that the substance of society is becoming clear to the people. They cannot be content with simply referring to the State, but they have to use the terms, the State and society.

However, society is still identified by some people with the State, while some others vaguely consider that the State is one thing and society another. They seem to mean by society the lower class or proletarian class trampled on by the upper, and think that it is one of the State's duties to be benevolent to those poor people. German scholars were of this opinion, which was followed by most Japanese.

Then it is to be asked, "What is the difference between the State and society?" This is a very difficult question for the greater part of the Japanese to answer. They appear to think it is quite enough to consider about the society of Japan, and that if there exists any society at all it must be the circle daily referred to in the so-called social items of daily papers. They again think such a circle should necessarily be favoured by philanthropy, but it is troublesome to have such a society in the country. This is the idea of society shared by most of the ruling class and bourgeoisie of Japan.

This is why it is considered unbecoming to students to devote themselves to the study of socialism, social sciences, social thoughts and social problems, with "society" as the object of their researches.

It must be admitted that Japanese society is not so far stabilized or replenished, and it is our duty to promote our social conditions. In the Meiji Era the national foundation was built up and the country was so strongly consolidated that it came to be ranked as one of the Great Powers.

Now, in our turn, we, young Japanese, are destined to stabilize and replenish the pivot of society, the source of the national power; we have to built up a new civilization so that a splendid society may be brought into existence.

Is it not splendid in this sense, that young Japanese students take heed to this grave question and do not neglect the study of social matters? It is to be hoped that not only students but all the people, regardless of their social levels, will occupy themselves with research into varied social problems, attaching much importance to the subject.

But, when we look at the present condition of the thinking classes of the country, we unfortunately find a collision between the traditional old culture and the alien thought. In closely examining the matter, it is found that the national thought is not in chaos, but very well arranged as in a show-case. The heads shown there are full of brains, not mere skulls. The only drawback consists in the irregularity of the arrangement, but there is no actual collision, head with head. Each head is controlled whether by the traditional thought or one introduced from the West. Heads twenty years old, thirty years old, forty years old, and fifty years old are arranged in the show-case in accordance with the order of ages.

The traditional idea of the national

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polity, national spirit and moral principles, on one hand, and modern social thought, the genius of the times and social righteousness, on the other, confront each other, the two kinds of thoughts of entirely opposed systems apparently having a collision.

In these circumstances, no harmony can be found in present-day Japan among social phenomena, political, economic and moral. Those phenomena seem to be segregated one from another, as if each were living isolated. Japan is perfectly unified as a nation, but remains in an unstable condition as a society. Today Japan as a State is gradually assuming a consolidated form, but society itself is left in an uneasy condition.

Then, what step should be taken for rescuing the country from this chaotic condition of thought? Firstly, national thought should be better informed; secondly, the tendency of the social thought of the people must be scrupulously studied: thirdly, last but not least, the conception of the national constitution has to be defined, so as to socialize the State and democratisize society. By socializing the State of Japan it is meant to adapt the country to its social activities, instead of allowing it to stagnate relieving the country of its present condition in which the State and society appear to exist isolatedly.

The so-called democratization of society signifies the democratic disciplining of society, without allowing any particular social class to rule it despotically. What is now called the State and society in Japan is very ambiguous, being no conscious application of the term regarding the development of the State and society as a whole.

There is no significance of "commonwealth" as used by Englishmen in it. The term "commonwealth" is used in England indiscriminately by the socialists, nationalists and liberalists. The meaning of the word lies in the general consciousness of the populace of the common object of society at large; a "commonwealth" means nothing beyond an ideal state or society. With such conception alone the composite wholesome development of the State and society can be achieved. No such conception has so far developed in Japan.

Taking it for granted that the present social condition of the country reflects contemporary social thought, it is still far from being satisfactory. Politics should further be economized, while economics must be more moralized: reality should be more closely combined with the ideal. By thus socializing and democratisizing politics, economics, morality and law, society will be democraticaly improved and evolved so as to attain the common object of the people, while going through the process of socialization of the country.

It must be after the socialization of the country that philosophy, science, principles and policy regarding society itself are firmly established. It is my eager desire to build up a system for the study of social sciences and create a new science of social policy on the basis of social philosophy, social economy, social jurisprudence and social politics. I would not hesitate to adopt the theory of socialism, if it is found worthy, while I would not neglect the practical steps of social undertakings of various kinds. In short, I am seeking for a measure by

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which to solve important social questions on the basis of the above serious studies.

In conclusion, I must emphasize that national thought should never be repressed, but it must be edified and illumined; that the problem regarding social thought should not be controlled, but be carefully studied. It should not be artificially unified, but be properly guided.

A few words must here be added in advice to young students in this country. They must not regard the matter of thought and principles as a faith; originally nobody can believe in a thought; in studying thought one is not allowed to be wedded to it. If people fall victims to a special kind of thought, they will be unable to establish a new principle. Thought should not be confounded with a sort of religious belief.

Mr. Shigeki Nishimura, who was quoted in the early part of this lecture, emphatically asserted that reason, not man, should be made our teacher, and that the superiority of Western philosophy to Confucianism lay in this conviction. If a Marxist regard Marx as his sole object of worship and reveration, he cannot pursue his studies of social thought. One has to take a more critical viewpoint; one must adopt the truth, but not the man who upholds such truth.

Mr. Yukichi Fukuzawa was quite in the right when he said: "It is urgently needed to open the gate first, if one wishes to admit others into one's own principle."

The present-day students of Japan, whether from their patriotic spirit or not we do not know, persistently stick to Hegelian nationalism, in consequence of which, they are generally inclined to reject internationalism or socialism. To quote Eucken's words, the Japanese students of today try to embody thought and philosophy in the machinery of theory. How can they seriously study thought and principles?

The most important mission on the shoulders of the Japanese poople in future is to establish new thought not in other countries but in Japan herself; to build up a fresh civilization and culture in their own land. It is no time now to simply meditate over and yearn for the past or blindly imitate alien thoughts and fawn upon foreign countries.

(End)

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Strange Habits of Japanese Green Frogs

By Yaichiro Okada

THREE well known members of the green frog species inhabit the mainland of Japan, *schlegel*, *mori* and *kita*. They have interesting breeding habits. The writer, studying their geographical distribution, has observed these habits, some of which may be described here.

Schlegel frogs, or Rhacophorus schlegelii (Gunther), have the greatest distribution area of the three, extending over the mainland, Shikoku and Kyushu. But their vertical distribution is limited, as they are found only on level ground and not in mountains. Usually, they inhabit chiefly trees, but in the breeding season, they go to the sides of paddy fields or pools of water, temporarily.

In Tokyo and vicinity, the breeding season is from the end of May to the end of June, and it is at its height towards the beginning of June. Then we hear them chorusing vigorously on the rice field ridges. Their breeding habits have been written about in detail by Mr. Sakujiro Ikeda, and the writer gives here his supplementary observations.

The frog lays its eggs in a hole, 5-6 inches in diameter and 4-5 inches in depth in the earth of rice-field ridges. In a ridge overgrown with grass, the hole lies just under the ground, while in another place, it is 1-2½ inches from the ground surface.

When one presses rather carefully the ground with the hand, one can find the egg-mass directly under it, as the earth is softer than in other parts. The hole being situated a little above the water,

Fig. 1

Egg-masses laid in paddy, fieldedge of Phacophorus schlegelii (Guenther) Removed the earth on the surface)

foamy egg-masses are often seen floating in the paddy-field in the rainy season in June, when the ridge earth is frequently washed away by the rains.

The hole is supposed to be built by the female frog. It contains one female frog and two or three male frogs. All these male frogs do not embrace the female, but only one, on whose gaining the female, the rest either go out or seem to remain temporarily, helping the couple in breeding.

In breeding, the writer has seen only one male and one female in a hole, and no more males, but before breeding, the hole has been found to contain male and female frogs always in the above pro-

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portions.

The embrace is pectoral, the male holding in its forelimbs the part directly behind the forelimbs of the female, and the male's hind limbs being on the hips of the female. Egg laying appears to be mostly at night, but it is sometimes done in daylight, and more especially in the morning. When the female ejects ova from the oviduct, they are found in a gelatinous substance, transparent and somewhat yellowish, but later, it is stirred up by the male's hind limbs, and becomes a white, foamy mass.

Fig. 2
Phacophorus schlegelii (Guenther) embracing in a hole under fieldedge ground

This foamy mass is at first placed behind the parent frogs. As it grows in size, they move forward step by step, until it fills up the hole, when the breeding is over and the frogs separate and leave the hole.

The egg-mass is variable in size, and those seen by the writer were 50×78 mm. minimum, and 73×110 mm. maximum. One egg-mass contains 350-660 eggs, which are smaller near the surface and bigger towards the centre. At first, it is extremely soft and when touched by the hand, easily sticks to it. But it gradually dries up and becomes somewhat hard, being covered with a membrane. Egg-masses, if not stirred up completely by the male frog, exist as gelatinous substances, in which they are delivered from the oviduct.

Egg-masses, when laid, are filled with foamy substances, but in course of time the eggs grow into tadpoles, and when the tadpoles grow to a degree, the egg-masses are liquidized inside, and the tadpoles can easily swim out. A natural enemy of the egg-masses is a kind of isopoda, which swarm about and eat them.

The egg is 3 mm. in diameter. Outside, it has two layers of thin membrane and the outside layer is about twice as thick the inside one. It is milk-white, but the animal pole is straw coloured. When we keep an egg-mass in a glass basin, we can see tadpoles swimming out of it in about a week. Then they are white, having a big yolk-sac and outer gills. At first they are as inactive as if they were in a quiescent state. But they grow rapidly and soon become black, and with the yolk-sac reduced in size, they move actively. About the sixth day after that they lose entirely the yolk-sac and take form like other frog tadpoles. When they develop hind-limbs, they have an oval form, with a long tail, the end of which is pointed. Its back is deep black and its ventral part is greyish-black. In

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the autumn of the year, they become young frogs.

Regarding *mori-aogayeru* (Rhacophorus schlegelli var. arborea Okada et Kawano), its distribution area is not yet exactly known, but it seems to extend over the area from Okayama Prefecture in the south to Aomori Prefecture in the north. One interesting thing is that the habitation of the frog is confined to mountainous districts.

It was carefully studied by Professor Suyekichi Akaza of the Kyoto Medical College, and he publishd interesting things about it. Later, it was studied by Messrs. Usaburo Kawano, Kanzo Wada, Kameji Kurioka and Jintaro Umemura, and the writer and they introduced to the scient ific world other points of interest about it. The writer confines himself for the present to summarizing these publications and to stating roughly the morphological condition of the frog.

This variety usually inhabits trees and emigrates to pond or lake sides before the breeding season, when they cry loudly. The males may be distinguished from the females by the size of their bodies as in the case of the foregoing variety. Their embrace is pectoral, the male embracing the female by the armpit with its forelimbs. In breeding, they have the peculiar habit of laying their eggs in trees.

The varieties that are known as having similar habits of breeding, are (1) Phyllomedusa hypochondrialis, (2) Phyllomedusa iherringii, (3) Churomantis rufescens, (4) Hyla nebulosa, (5) Rhacophorus viridis, (6) Rhacophorus leucomystax, (7) Rhacophorus leucomystax var sexvirgata and (8) Polypedates reinsuardsi, of which (2) and (8) have been studied closely as to their breeding and other habits.

Frogs of the green species, which are known at present, have been found to have thei distribution area generally in the southern part of the world and sparsely in its northern part, and it may be said that the northern extremity of Aomori Prefecture of Japan is the northern limit of distribuion in the world. It may be synonymous with the green frog species.

The breeding season of this variety is different according to place. In the southern part, Kyoto and Nara, it begins at the begiming of April. In Tokyo and vicinity, it starts at the beginning of June while in Aonori Prefecture, it commences towards the end of July. The trees in which the eggs are laid are always on the banks of lake, marsh or pond but no selection seems to be made of the trees.

Male and female frogs climb trees, while they are in embrace, and stop in a suitable position, where they gather a few leaves, between which the eggs are laid, or small twigs are lapped and the eggs are laid on the leaves. The writer has not met anything like that described by Mr. Siedlecki, egg laying on a leaf with its edge rolled by the frog.

The placeof laying the eggs is not at a fixed height above the water and is 1-4 metres, of vhich 2 metres seems to be the most popular height.

As to the Hawaian polypedates reinwardii, Mr Sedlecki saw that of 46 egg-masses observed, all had been laid in places 5 to 50 steps off the water, except only one, which had been laid in the twigs of a tree directly above a pond. The reverse is the case in Japan, where

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egg laying is seldom seen at such a distance from the water. Mr. Siedlecki's case was perhaps that a heavy shower in the tropical region making a temporary rivulet, somewhat grown tadopoles were washed away from the egg-masses and were carried to pools where there was no danger of drying up.

The laying of the eggs resembles the method of Racophorus schlegelii, described before this variety. The male and female bend the long hind limbs before the tibio-tarsal articulation reaches the anus. Spawning is from the oviduct to the tenacious mass, while the male ejaculates the sperm into it. Both move the hindlimbs similarly at the same time and rub the back with the tarsus, after which the hind-limbs are extended and shortened alternately in the mucus. This movement is made extremely quickly, and after the mucus attaches to the periphery of the eggs as foam, making a big foamy egg-mass.

Fig. 3
A big foamy egg-mass of Rhacophorus schlegelii var. Arborea, Okada et Kawano

This egg-mass measures 70×55 mm. minimum and 152-243 mm. maximum. Its surface is dried and hardened as time passes, when it is also discoloured.

Those in the Enmei marsh in Futaba-gun, Fukushima Prefecture are called by the local people by the name of "gold brocade bags" or "five-coloured bags", This denomination suggests how the mass changes colour with elapsing time. It is often seen with flies or other insects gathering on the surface, and its discoloring is perhaps due in part to their discharges.

The eggs, enveloped in the foamy substance, lie scattered in the mass, numbering 300 to 800. They are white and are lightly yellow only towards the animal pole. They are 3.5-4.0 mm. in diameter, which is far bigger than those of the foregoing variety. They have two tegumentary layers on the outside, and they are slightly thicker than those on the inside.

According to Mr. Akatsuka's observations their eggs are meroblastic, unlike those of common frogs and just as the egg segmentation of lower fishes such as the Ganoidei or the Dipnoi. This is interesting in the treatment of the phylogeny of this variety. The aforesaid variety may be the same in this respect but it has not yet been studied.

In this variety, contrary to the aforesaid variety, the egg-mass has hardship in absorbing moisture from the outside, and if it does not rain before the tadpoles hatch and leave the eggs, it will almost dry out. Even in that event, it is impossible that the tadpoles should perish of want of moisture, for the egg-mass is semi-fluid for about one-third of the inner part. Moreover, the stiffening of the sur-

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face through dryness must be a preventive of the evaporation of the inner moisture on the one hand and of the invasion of enemy insects on the other.

When the development attains the stage that the tadpoles break the egg membrane and come out into the mass, they gather round the semi-fluid in it. Full grown tadpoles in the mass then fall down into the water on the breaking of the lower end of the mass.

The struggle for existence is severe. Just when the tadpoles are falling down from the trees, there are in the water Diemyctiles Phyrrogaster and other tadpole eating animals gathering and waiting for their prey. Those that escape from this enemy, grow big and black, and their character is nearly the same as of the aforestated variety.

Kita-aogaeru (Rhacophorus schlegelli var. intermaida Okada et Kawano) also inhabit trees, but breeding habits are different from the foregoing variety and

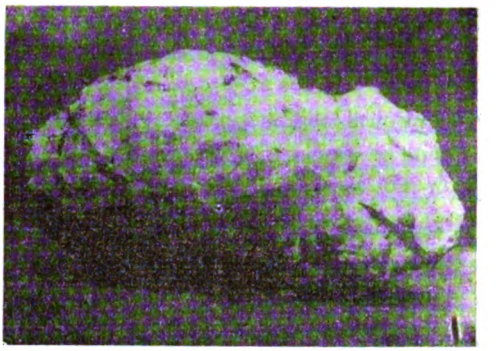

Fig. 5

An egg-mass containing 422 eggs of Rhacophorus schlegelii var. intermedia Okada et Kawano

somewhat resemble those of the first mentioned variety, as they lay eggs not in trees, but in waterside grass or moss. Morphologically, the parent frogs have a little point, which distinguishes the male from the female. As to the tadpoles, egg-masses and eggs, there seems to be no difference whatever from the foregoing variety.

Fig. 4

An egg-mass and place of egg laying of Rhacophorus. schlegelii var. intermedia.

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The Osaka Chamber of Commerce

OSAKA is the greatest city in Japan, except Tokyo, and is sometimes called the Manchester of the Orient on account of its remarkably developed trade and industry. Its Chamber of Commerce is in keeping with the city's position.

It is thirty years since the Osaka Chamber of Commerce was founded to take over the duties of the Osaka Shoho Kaigisho, which was set up in January, 1879.

This latter date was soon after the Meiji Restoration, when trade was in disorder and the sense of commercial morality had been largely lost, while there were no preparations made economically for dealing with the new age. To remedy the evils of the time, the Shoho Kaigisho was organized by Mr. T. Godai and other prominent business men in Osaka, Mr. Godai acting as Presideut. The institution gradually developed its functions, contributing much towards the economic reconstruction of the city.

In 1890, the Chamber of Commerce Law was promulgated, recognizing officially the chamber of commerce as a representative of a city's commerce and industry. Under this law, the Osaka Chamber of Commerce was established, and its predecessor was dissolved.

In January, 1891, the establishment of the chamber was approved by the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, and in July, the same year, its officials were selected, Mr. K. Isono being chosen its first President.

In 1902, the new Chamber of Commerce Law was enacted, on which the present membership system of the Osaka Chamber of Commerce was adopted.

Since then, it has been successively presided over by Messrs. I. Tanaka, K. Ukita, M. Doi, J. Yamaoka and R. Imanishi, and the present President, Mr. K. Inahata.

Mr. Inahata is famous for his invention of the khaki colour used in dyeing Japanese army uniforms and was the recipient at first of a Blue Ribbon Medal from H. M. the Emperor in appreciation of the invention and later, in 1922, of the Third Class of the Order in recognition of his distinguished services to the economic world of Japan. In 1926, he became a member of the House of Peers by Imperial appointment.

The eldest son of Mr. R. Inahata of Kyoto, Mr. Inahata was born in October, 1862. At first, he intended to be a primary school teacher and entered the Kyoto Normal School. In course of his studies there, his high intelligence was recognized by the local Government authorities, who sent him to France to learn dyeing. For about eight years, he stayed in France, and came back to Japan in 1885. He was appointed instructor in the Kyoto Dyeing School, and in the year following, became chief engineer of the Kyoto Weaving Co. Subsequently, he established himself as a trader under the firm name of Inahata & Co. and gradually advanced to his present prominent position in the economic community of Osaka. He is the Honorary Consul of the Bolivian Republic and of Roumania.

There are two Vice-Presidents of the Osaka Chamber of Commerce, at present

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Messrs. Y. Ataka and K. Takayama. The Chief Secretary is Dr. M. Takayanagi. He is an authority in the scienitific world of Japan.

The Osaka Chamber of Commerce has set forth its views always as a representative of the local commerce and industry and in response to inquiries from the Government. It has otherwise made many notable contributions directly and indirectly towards the economic prosperity of Osaka.

Since the World War, the chamber's activities increased so much that its old building proved inadequate, and the present fine building was erected at a cost of half a million yen.

Below is an outline of what the Chamber undertakes.

1. As a representative of the business community of Osaka, it submits its views to the government of its own motion or in answer to official questions.

2. Promotion of Commercial Transaction between Foreign and Domestic Traders and Certification.—This duty has been doubled or trebled since the World War, and the latest figures are the following:—

Domestic: 7,728 items

6,657 items of commercial transactions arranged.

597 items investigated.

474 miscellaneous items

Foreign:

1. Promotion of commercial transaction: 439 items

a. 186 items of sellers wanted

b. 221 ,, ,, buyers ,,

c. 42 ,, ,, agents, etc., wanted

2. Credit inquiries: 41 items

a. 34 items of foreign inquiries about Japanese traders.

b. 7 items of Japanese inquiries about foreign traders.

Besides, 43 commercial disputes were settled, 283 items were certified or judged, 252 items were translated and 710 miscellaneous items were dealt with concerning foreign commercial transactions.

3. It publishes returns of commodity prices, wages, productions, trade, money, insurance, warehousing and traffic investigated by itself, once or twice a month or in its monthly organ, and yearly its business report, an economic and financial annual and a commercial and industrial directory. It also publishes pamphlets occasionally as necessity arises.

4. It tests under a definite standard the educational qualifications of self-taught young men in trade and industry in Osaka and issues certificates once or twice a year. This was approved by the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce and has been carried on since 1919.

5. Osaka Commercial School.—This school was established in 1914. At present, it gives an A class commercial education to its students in a five year day course and by night a special course and a girls' commercial course to those intending to serve as clerks in commercial and industrial houses.

(6) Holding of Exhibitions, Sample Fairs, Etc.

(7) Research and Investigation of Different Subjects.

(8) Lectures and Publicity.

(9) Commercial Arbitration.

(10) Public Library.

The Osaka Chamber of Commerce Public Library has a large number of books on commerce and industry, collected since its foundation, which affords useful information to visitors. It was rearranged and enlarged on the completion of the present new office building of the Chamber and is open to the public.

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Foreign Trade Early in the Tokugawa Era

By Shujiro Watanabe

PORTUGUESE and Spaniards were the first Europeans to come to Japan and trade with the Japanese. They came towards the end of the era of the Ashikaga shogunate, or in the Oda and Toyotomi periods. A little later than them came Dutchmen early in the Tokugawa era but they at last monopolized Japan's foreign trade with Europe.

The Hollanders who first visited Japan, were members of the crew of a Dutch ship. They came in the 11th or 12th year of Tensho (1583 or 1584). One of them was called Jan Huygen van Linschoten and another Dirk Gerritsz, the latter of whom had been many years in India as a gunner. They stayed in Japan in the 13th and 14th year of Tensho (or from August, 1585 to February, 1586), and then left Asia in January, 1589. But Gerritsz came again to Japan in 1590 for the object of trade.

In 1595, Linschoten wrote of the travels to the Orient by the Dutch, by which the secret of the Dutch route became known to the world. As a result, a Dutch trading company sent five ships to Japan, laden with mirrors, silks, velvets, etc. to barter. These ships encountered, disasters en route, and only one of them came back, in July, 1600. The expedition had at first about 500 men, but only 36 returned. The company suffered a heavy loss.

The *Liefde*, one of the ships, arrived at Bungo in north-west Kyushu in the middle of April. Her navigating officer was William Adams, an Englishman. There were 74 in the crew, and they were in a miserable condition. Several of them were sick and the rest was so exhausted that only five could stand up and walk and three died the day following.

The lord of Bungo gave the best possible treatment to them, pending instructions from the Central Government. He provided a hospital for the sick and a few days afterwards, he nominated a good port, to which the ship was transferred. The port was perhaps Funai in Oita Prefecture.

A few Portuguese in the place with the evil intention of creating the suspicion that the Dutchmen were pirates, among the Japanese people, intimidated and enticed with money two Dutch sailors into reporting their comrades to be pirates, to the magistrate.

Tokugawa Iyeyasu, who happened to be in Osaka, summend Adams, wishing an explanation from him. He discovered that the false report had been given through the instigation of the Portuguese, who had political and religious hatred for the Dutch and feared they would be formidable competitors in Japan.

The case was, however, won by the Portuguese, as Iyeyasu thought it wise to listen to them and utilize it as a means to check their plots.

Adams was given confinement for 41 days and was freed then. Other Dutch-

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men went to Osaka by sea and then to Yedo by Iyeyasu's order. Iyeyasu bought of them machines and other articles of about 100,000 yen in value.

He was in the Osaka Castle from October in the 4th year of Keicho (1599) to June the next year, in May or June of which be saw Adams in the castle. On June 18, he left Osaka for the east.

Then, there was fought the famous battle of Sekigahara on September 15. He was extremely busy at this moment of great political change. Still he attended to diplomatic affairs with his usual care and diligence.

Melchior ven Santweert, a Dutch merchant, was engaged in trade between Japan and Holland. Adams served Iyeyasu as an adviser in gunnery, mathematics and shipbuilding and was much favoured by the Shogun, who granted him a fief of 250 *koku* in the Province of Sagami, in recognition of his distinguished services in shipbuilding.

Adams lived in comfort and power, respected by the people. Yet his heart was always oppressed by homesickness as he wrote to his family at home. But he could not get leave of absence from Iyeyasu, who so appreciated his talents that he would not let him go home. The fief granted to him corresponded to a yearly income of 10,000 yen of to-day.

Adams wrote in a letter home that Iyeyasu gave him a position as magnificient as that of an English noble, putting 80 or 90 farmers in his service, the greatest privilege ever granted to a foreigner.

About this time, Japan opened trade with Batanes Islands. Dutchmen opend offices in a port there in about 1603. Lord Matsuura Ikino-kami of Hirato built a ship and sent her to Batanes to trade there and to restore the foreign trade of Hirato. Some Dutchmen, who had been five years in Japan, went home by the ship. In December, 1605, the ship arrived there. Quackernaeck, the captain of the *Liefde*, and Santwoort also left Japan by the same ship. Later, the latter established himself as a trader there and often visited Japan, from which he exported pepper, silks, shark skin, etc., in return for which, he imported into the place wheat flour, grains, etc.

Merchantmen of the Dutch East Indies Company traded with China and Japan in competition with the Portuguese. This culminated in a great sea battle between them, in which the Portuguese lost 4,000 persons and 23 ships and the Dutchmen 700 persons and 2 ships, and Quackernaeck died in battle.

In the following year, 1707, a number of Dutch merchants visited Japan, but they could not realize their object of trading. Several years after the Dutchmen came to Japan they were favourably treated by the Japanese Government, which granted them a trade permit, but as these five years were spent idly by them, they lost the favour of the Japanese. The Dutchmen feared that their commercial rights in Japan might be lost on account of the jealousy and slander of the Portuguese. So the manager of the Dutch merchants' guild in Batanes wrote to the Japanese ruler, as a result of which it was arranged between them and the Japanese Government for the opening of trade between the Dutch East Indies Company and Japanese traders, Santwoort being appointed the manager of the company's Japanese Department.

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In the meantime, the Dutch Government was careful about Japan. In Febuary, 1606, a law relating to trade with Japan was passed by the Legislature. Credentials were sent by the ruler to the Japanese Emperor, by a messenger, who left for India in April, 1606, but he could not fulfil his mission.

In December, 1608, another fleet of 13 merchantmen was sent from Holland to Japan. They arrived at Bantam, Java the next year, and then, two of them, laden with merchandise, left Batanes for Japan and arrived at Hirato in July. The lord of Hirato desired trade to be opened with the new foreign visitors in his territory. He built a ship at his own expense and offered it, together with 56 sailors, to the Dutchmen for their use in visiting the east of Japan. The Governor of Nagasaki also made efforts for their eastern visit. The Dutchment presented different articles in return for this kindness. Abraham van den Broeck and Nicholaes Puyck who had come on board the ships, visited Yedo by sea, accompanied by Santwoort as an interpreter.

The Spaniards and Portuguese had made very valuable presents to the Japanese Government officials, as their nations were most powerful and rich then. As compared with these presents, those presented by the Dutchmen were very poor, consisting only of 350 *kin* of raw silk, 3,000 *kin* of lead, two pieces of ivory and two gold cups.

Clear-sighted Tokugawa Iyeyasu, the first Tokugawa shogun, however, saw the advantage of trade with Holland and accorded hospitable treatment to the Dutchmen, whose bravery he knew and whose religious tolerance he probably knew, too. They were granted by him a permit, allowing them in any port in Japan. They were handed his reply to the letter of the Governor of the Dutch Federation, in which he stated that Japan desired trade with Holland and that Dutch merchants might come and open their offices freely in it. The letter was dated July 25 in the 14th year of Keicho (1609), the full text of which may be found in a certain few old Japanese books.

The Dutch envoys came back to Hirato, satisfied with the success of their mission to negotiate with the Japanese Government for the opening of trade with Holland. In September of the same year, they hired a house, which was comparatively fire proof, there, and opened their office in it, appointing Spooks the manager, who was assisted by one interpreter, one clerk and one servant. This office had then only a very small stock of silks, pepper, etc.

The Dutch envoys left Hirato for home in October of the same year and safely arrived at Batanes in due course. One of the ships came back to a certain island, her home port, the next year, when Japanese articles were first imported there by her. Before that date, some Japanese articles might have been imported there, but they had not been brought before by a Dutch ship. The imports comprised lacquer ware, 9 cases, and 9,227 earthen and porcelain wares.

After that trade between Japan and Holland increased more and more and many Dutch firms established their offices in Osaka, Sakai, Kyoto and Sunpu (Shizuka), besides Hirato, where they sold their goods to the Tokugawa Government, clans and merchants.

By this time, Englishmen began to no-

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tice the importance of trade with Japan, and an English commercial expedition arrived at Hirato in 1613. This was on the suggestion of Adams, who had written about it to England, his home country. Captain Saris took with him credentials from King James the First of England and his presents to Yedo. He met there Tokugawa Iyeyasu and Tokugawa Hidetada and obtained their approval of the opening of trade with England. He sent his clerks to different places in the interior for business. For about ten years, there was keen competition everywhere between the English and the Dutch but towards the end of 1624, the English closed their offices at Hirato and left Japan, as they had become unable to do a lucrative business.

Previous to this, Spaniards and Portuguese had started business in Japan, but they were more inclined towards the propagation of Christianity then business. Many Japanese were converted to it, and gradually, the number of Japanese believers increased and their actions often interfered with the political adminstration. The authorities took a great dislike to them and strictly forbade the admission of Portuguese into the country, after the disturbances of Christians at Shimabara in the 15th year of Kanyei (1638).

With this, the foreign trade of Japan was monopolized practically by the Dutch and Chinese. In the 18th year of the same era (1614), the Dutch transferred their offices and residences, by Government order from Hirato to Nagasaki, where they were confined to the small settlement of Dejima and traded under strict official control. Sometimes, they made big profits, but generally they had to be contented with small profits, for the subsequent 250 years, when the country was opened to foreign intercourse in the Kayei era.

The Dutch long stood as the intermediary between Japan and Europe in their commercial intercourse and introduced international knowledge and European civilization to Japan, furnishing the basis for the advocacy of opening the country to foreign intercourse, by some Japanese progressives.

This achievement stands to their credit, though it was a purely fortuitous one.

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Lacquered Butterflies

A Novel

(IV)

By Ryutei Tanehiko

ONE day, Fubuki, the mother of young Master Kichiza of the Fudoya, whose office was close by the torii of the Hachiman Shrine at Tsurugaoka, Kamakura, called her son to her room and said:

"For some time, I have wanted to talk to you about something but have not had the occasion to do so. I have decided to speak about it now to you and so have called you.

"It is about your marriage with Ayame, younger sister of Sagoshichi, whom I adopted intending her to become your wife. As you know, she is intelligent, and you seem to be on very friendly terms with her. My husband is very glad of this and is preparing for the marriage to be held at an early date. We wish to see you and Ayame get on well together and it will be very happy for us, too, if we can have, by and by, our first grandson by your marriage."

"No, no, mother!" Kichiza exclaimed, "I can't marry her, I can't marry her for a certain reason, though I am thankful to you for your kind words."

The mother was astonished at this reply, quite contrary to what she had expected. She wondered what was the reason and sat lost in thought for a while, after which she said, apparently something occurring to her:

"Although merchants, we are an old and distinguished family in Kamakura, and in order to make her look worthy of our social position, Ayame has been clothed as finely as a daimyo's daughter as I feared that if she were dressed commonly, it might be a source of ill speaking against us by people. You are opposed to marrying her, perhaps, because of your not liking her dressed so gaily and in old fashioned style. If so, her dress shall be at once changed to that of a common and fashionable style. So, I hope you will consent to marrying her and ease my and my husband's minds."

She looked on young Kichiza still as a boy, and tried hard to coax him to consent to the marriage. But he would not listen, declaring:

"However much you urge me to marry Ayame, I am unable to do it, as it is against a vow I made."

He rose, and was leaving the room. The mother detained him, and said:

"Just stop a moment, my son! I must tell you a little more about the matter. I learned that in the spring, last year, when you went to view the cherry blossoms, you by chance found Ayame's house and met her, that you fell in love with her and had a secret conversation, each opening the heart to the other. So, I adopted her, to be married to you. But you now decline to marry her, though you seem to have loved her. There must be some reason for it. Tell me the whole truth. Otherwise, I'll not let you leave this room."

Tender-hearted as she was, she seemed

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to be offended with her son.

Kichiza was annoyed and replied:

"Before she was adopted by you, I fell in love with her as you say, mother! But I never wished to marry her, and I simply thought of employing her as maid, taking pity on her poverty. We even then never promised to marry. If you allow me to take her as a concubine, I will obey your wishes, but as for taking her as my wife, I beg you not to urge me."

Kichiza left the room hurriedly.

The mother was not satisfied and left the room to once more call him back and to try to get at the bottom of the matter, when she was stopped by Ayame, who in another room had listened to the conversation. She tried to soothe her:

"I have heard everything. There must be some very special reason for his opposition to the marriage. If you love me, be so good as to soften your anger. I am so worried, as I am directly concerned and it seems to have irritated you greatly."

Fubuki's anger was somewhat appeased, and she felt sorry for Ayame. Uttering no word and with a heavy heart, she re-entered for own room.

Sadly, Ayame gazed after her and with a sigh, soliloquized:

"How merciful she is! It is inconceivable that Kichiza-san declines marriage with me because he has a vow. But I must resign myself, as it has perhaps been brought about by my inability to hold him. I am afraid he has another love."

She became lost in thought, and was surprised by some one approaching her and plucking her by the sleeve. It was Tomomatsu, a nephew of her adoptive mother and a lad of bad character. Having committed wrongs and putting his aunt to great trouble, he had been forbidden to frequent her house, but on the recent occasion of a mass held for her father on the twenty-seventh anniversary of his death, he had been allowed free access to the house again, thanks to Kansai's (Fubuki's husband) intercession.

Tomomatsu, looking at Ayame, shed a few sham tears and began:

"Do you know, Ayame-san, that recently Kichiza has been absorbed in love with a prostitute at Keai-zaka (Kamakura), whom he has promised to marry? Undoubtedly it is on this account, that he has declined to marry you. So far, I have refrained from telling this to you, but being touched by your good and sweet heart, I felt I must let you know. I am afraid, if Kichiza marries this prostitute, about what will become of you."

Ayame smiled:

"If from the first I had thought of Kichiza-san as my future husband, I should have felt jealous on hearing this from you, but I shall not feel bitter against him if he marries another woman for however kind your aunt is to me, I always feel that I am only a maid serving in this house, and I shall never forget my poor life when I was with my elder brother."

"How clever and noble!" Tomomatsu exclaimed clapping his hands as if with admiration, "but it would be folly for you to maintain that attitude. The Fudoya is an old family, to which estate my aunt succeeded, and her husband only married into the family, bringing with him Kichiza. Now, Kichiza is dissolute, as I just told you, My aunt may turn

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him out as well as her husband, on that account, if she is determined to do so. Then, they could have no alternative but to go begging. In that event, there would be no one to succeed to the family estate, but myself. You had better marry me rather than to pass your life singly and lonesomely, keeping your maidenhood uselessly for the debauched Kichiza."

Eagerly he thus attempted to seduce her. Clever as she was, she was still too young and unexperienced in affairs of the world to treat him with indifference. In a fit of anger she cried:

"No, no! I know my mother very well. Should it happen that I am turned out as Kichiza-san may be, I will willingly take to begging rather than marry such an unpleasant fellow as you and lead an easy life, attended by maids. If you speak again of such a loathsome thing, I'll report it to my mother-in-law."

She beat Tomomatsu in the face with her long sleeve and ran into her room.

For a while, Tomomatsu stood stupefied.

Then he was aroused by loud laughter behind him. Turning, he saw Danpachi, a clerk of the Fudoya, standing by him.

"I have heard all your conversation with Ayame-san. Don't be in a hurry, if you wish to succeed in your love affair. The rabbit cannot be caught by hawking after it is discovered as you are trying to do in your game. If you wish to win the girl, you should attempt first to have her break with Kichiza. For this, some stratagem is necessary. You are very ugly, which makes it extraordinarily hard to win her over to you."

"All you say is right, Danpachi," Tomomatsu said, "What shall I do?"

Danpachi declared:

"You told Ayame-san that Kichiza is in love with a prostitute at Keai-zaka. You told a lie. He is handsome, but he has never visited the demi-monde. He is always plainly dressed and is diligent in his business."

Tomomatsu glanced with an odd expression at Danpachi's face and said:

"I felt irritated at your speaking of me as ugly and now I am more displeased by hearing you say that Kichiza is handsome and diligent. Why do you speak so highly of him?"

"He is truly handsome and diligent," Danpachi responded with a smile, "and that is just what we ought to turn to account for the accomplishment of our object. If we can succeed in leading such an upright man as Kichiza into dissipation we can expect to have him give himself up to it completely."

Danpachi whispered in Tomomatsu's ear. Tomomatsu rejoiced at what he heard and burst out laughing. Danpachi hushed him and continued to talk to him about their dark designs.

(To be Continued)

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The Ceramic Industry

JAPAN'S ceramic ware production was valued at 64,741,000 yen in 1923 and 68,533,000 yen in 1924, and the exportation reached 25,437,000 yen in 1924 and 35,272,000 yen in 1925.

Although of the comparatively small export value of 35,000,000 yen a year, it is the most important industrial product of Japan, except raw silk and silk fabrics, for the reason that it is made of purely domestic material and is finished goods. Most modern industries are of foreign origin, but the ceramic industry as well as the silk industry originated in the Orient.

While sericulture requires some peculiar conditions for working, climatically, etc. and cannot be carried on easily in Europe and America, the ceramic industry has been imitated comparatively easily abroad by profound chemical knowledge, for chemistry is the chief power ruling the industry. To-day, this industry is more advanced abroad than in this country.

Mr. S. Kobayashi, Expert of the Commercial and Industrial Department, feels doubtful if Japan's ceramic industry in its existing condition, can keep its present position in the international market and develop.

Great studies and endeavours are shown in Europe and America in regard to this industry, and especially they are teaching Japan as to saving in the cost of production.

In improving the ceramic ware trade, nothing can be more important than to reduce the cost of production, to improve and uniformize quality and to supply systematically.

As mentioned above, the production of ceramic wares in Japan amounted to 68,500,000 yen in 1924, and the exports were 2,500,000 yen for 1924 and 35,000,000 yen for 1925. Of the production, 40,000,000 yen worth was put out in Aichi and Gifu Prefectures, and this amount comprised 70 per cent. of the exports, and 80 per cent. of the national export trade in the wares. These two prefectures regulate, therefore, the general condition of the ceramic trade in Japan.

Aichi Prefecture has the Nippon Toki Kaisha of world fame and some other good works possessed of complete financial and technical facilities. But the exports are produced for the most part by those of comparatively small scale and not by these big works. In these small factories, the reduction of the producing cost is realized in a measure, but there appears to be much more room for improvement. Regarding the question of quality and supply to be improved, there is almost nothing put in practice.

Mr. Kobayashi emphasises the great and urgent necessity of this being done simultaneously with the reduction of the cost of production, for the prosperity of the local as well as national ceramic industry.

How may this be carried out? Mr. Kobayashi suggests some means.

In economizing the cost of production, in the first place, he argues regarding (1) the procuring of material, (2) figuration and (3) baking.

1. The procuring of material.—In Aichi Prefecture, the work of procuring

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material is divided in a characteristic way. It looks as if there is nothing to be spared in the expenses. However, not a little money is spent needlessly by the suppliers or manufacturers of clay and other baking materials in transporting them individually on a small scale, and they are supplied to potteries in a similar expensive way of transportation. This should be replaced by a co-operative method on as enlarged a scale as possible, by which money will be saved.

2. Figuration.—The figuration is really good. In this too, there is an extensive division of work. It appears to leave no room for economy. When it is considered more carefully, however, it will be found that the method of transporting by auto-trucks does not seem to be followed during the process of the divisional work from figuration to baking, when man power only is used. This must be improved for saving labour and diminishing breakage, as a way to economize the cost of production.

3. Baking.—Baking is much behind the times and cannot be compared with the obtaining of material and figuration. When firewood was used as the fuel, there was a certain system of kiln, contrived to bake in the second and other ovens by the surplus heat from the first oven. With this contrivance, the fuel required for these ovens was nearly one-half of that of the first. Later, this system gradually went out of use with the appreciation of firewood and its decreased supply, in addition to that the too big size of a certain type of kiln, which was used then, took a considerable time for one operation, making quick working and satisfactory supply of funds impossible.

Later, coal burning kilns came into use to obviate this disadvantage. These latter kilns were smaller than of the old system and have been proportionately uneconomical in the consumption of fuel. What the potters must be most careful of in improving their equipment hereafter is how to use their fuel most effectively, in the opinion of Mr. Kobayashi.

For ceramics, good coal is necessary. One scholar has said that the more fuel is utilized the more the people are civilized. In Japanese ceramics, its utilization is decreasing, which is expensive. Mr. Yoshimura, the former President of the Fuel Research Institute, stated that the coal supply in Japan is in so regrettable a condition as to bring the country to the brink of ruin, for the scarcity of coal supply means the destruction of civilization.

To use most effectively and most beneficially motive power, fuel or raw material is industrial morality, the manifestation of which is a basic feature of industrial development and a most important requisite for the production of national wealth.

A concrete method of fuel economy should be shown and forced to adoption in ceramics and other industries.

Japan's coal deposit is only 1/400 or 1/500 of the American deposit. Even in the later country, means to economize the use of coal, or to enhance the efficiency of coal burning have been exhaustively studied, and these means have been applied practically to industry.

A new kiln for chinaware making in use there possesses, however, the capacity of 1,500-2,000 feet per day and night on an average of nearly the same ground and

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shape, which is too big to be adopted advantageously by individual potteries even in Seto, Japan. If many makers of chinaware, of the same ground and shape there were combined for the object, however, about 10 kilns of the same capacity could be used there.

The small manufacturer has some good points, but in most cases, he cannot stand against the big manufacturer. If these good points are developed, while those which only big manufacturers use now come to be possessed in common by small manufacturers, the results will be very good. The advantage of common facilities has been emphasized among small manufacturers of late, and there are Government regulations provided for this.

Mr. Kobayashi thinks it ineffective to advise these manufacturers to improve their products or lower their cost of production, while their producing facilities are left as they are. Unless good raw materials and complete equipment are used by the manufacturers, and they are awakened to the need of this it will be very hard to stop the manufacture of inferior goods and unreasonable rivalry, as is the case at present.

On the other hand it would be difficult to force the manufacturers into combination or cooperation, without regard to their respective standpoints and particular interests. This is why a system of common equipment has not developed much in the past, in spite of its practical advantages.

It is important that means should be taken for removing the cause of this lack of development. A guild should be formed, for buying, selling and other business. It must be so strongly organized economically and technically that the potteries once joining it cannot advantageously leave it. If so strongly organized, it is certain that it will meet with success.

Mr. Kobayashi believes that for this, the most rational kiln to be adopted is the so called tunnel kiln or another kiln of similar efficiency.

The tunnel kiln will be capable of economizing fuel by 50-70 per cent. This will cut down the present cost of fuel by one-half or two-thirds. Secondly, the kiln will save 50 per cent. in baking labour. Thirdly, baking can be done in small quantities or in one truck loads every hour or one and a half hours, and the baked pottery comes out of the kiln in two or three days and nights. These things will facilitate the working of funds much more than at present. Fourthly, the grounds may be put in the kiln on a flat yard easily and without fear of breaking. Fifthly, the baked pottery comes out cool, and can be easily taken out in cases on a flat yard. Sixthly, the percentage of production will increase. Seventhly, the fillings in the kiln being only four or five high, the thickness of the cases may be decreased, and breakage from heavy loads may be reduced. Eighthly, the kiln has so large a capacity that it allows small ceramists to make use of it in common with nearly as much advantage as their big neighbours. Ninthly, the degrees of baking being fixed, the grounds and glazing can be made in common, comparatively economically by production on a large scale. Tenthly, although made by different persons, the products may be handled and sold at an equal price in the market, as the same quality, since they are of the same ground,

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glazing and baking degrees. Eleventhly, each member can mould different patterns from the other of the same material and can earn more for himself by an increased efficiency in moulding and new patterns or designs. Twelfthly, as the grounds and baking are uniform a little care taken by each ceramist can avoid the production of inferior goods. Thirteenthly, when no inferior goods are produced, and only goods of good and uniform quality in pretty large quantities at fixed times, the merchants can handle them conveniently and with confidence which will facilitate their export trade.

The tunnel kiln possesses ideal advantages as enumerated above, when it is properly used. At the same time, it has some inconveniences. One is that it is too expensive to be possessed by an individual of ordinary means and will have to be owned jointly by several persons. But such inconveniences must be put up with in order to reorganize the ceramic industry.

This is the way to economize in the cost of production. Besides, it will make uniform the quality of the products and will systematize supply. Moreover, the use of the kiln will incidentally minimize unreasonable rivalry.

Mr. Kobayashi believes that the use of tunnel kilns among Japanese ceramists will revolutionize Japan's ceramic trade, besides which their use must be spread as a means to improve industrial morality.

In the making of beer bottles and cement, the equipment is being improved more and more, and the old works are under the pressure of tho new with up-to-date equipment. This is not yet seen in the ceramic industry, but will certainly be felt in it too, sooner or later. So the ceramists must not be satisfied with present conditions.

The scale of production is becoming larger and larger in every industry, where equipment is being improved steadily and mechanical power being applied more and more. It is doubtful whether one industry relying simply on man power for the production of its goods will be able to keep its present position.

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The Lieutenant and His Pink Letter

SOME years ago an incident occurred to an officer on a warship, that has passed from mouth to mouth in the navy and still amuses the friends and juniors of the hero thereof.

Second Lieutenant Akiyama, second officer on watch on warship B, began to inspect a hundle of mail just delivered. Nearly all his letters related to pecuniary affairs, or to be more exact, pressed him for the return of money loaned. For this reason, they were usually unwelcome.

While looking over the address of each, he hoped against hope for something a little more interesting than what he was accustomed to get. There seemed to be none addressed to him, and he felt slightly disappointed.

They were all scribbled post-cards or dirty gray enveloped letters. Suddenly, one tiny pink envelope made its appearance. It was too graceful to be received by a sailor.

Seeing it, he felt a little envious.

When he took it up and looked at the address, however he was again surprised to findthat it was adressed to himself. The address was written in the style peculiar to Japanese women in writing to close friends.

He felt as if he had suddenly climbed a great height. He once more looked at the letter and, no doubt, it was addressed to Second Lieutenant N. Akiyama, Gun-room, Warship B, himself and nobody else.

With an uneasy feeling somewhat like that of a poor man on finding a large amount of money, Akiyama turned the letter over and looked at the sender's name. He smiled, and put it into a pocket.

"Deliver the mail!" he ordered as he began to walk the deck.

He strolled on the quarter-deck. He smiled unconsciously, unable to contain his joy.

The blue sea, the light purple land, flocks of white seagulls and all other things looked as if they had been made for himself. He eagerly desired to open the letter without a moment's delay. But he could not read it, as he was on duty. Nor could he go to the gun-room and read it shamelessly in the presence of his comrades.

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He determined to wait for 30 minutes, when he would be relieved. He waited with feverish impatience, when Lieutenant Yamada, on watch, exclaimed, "Second Lieutenant Akiyama, inform 'five minutes before' to the captain. There are only two or three minutes left. Be quick!"

Akiyama felt as if he had been awakened from a happy dream. "Five minutes before?" he asked. "Yes. Tell it to the Captain at once, if you please," Yamada answered and went on.

"All right." Akiyama replied quickly.

He then ran down in confusion and knocked at the door of the Captain.

"Captain, it is five minutes before," he cried. "All right,"—the Captain gave a calm reply as usual. Then, he added, "But five minutes to what?"

Akiyama was at a loss how to reply. He had rushed into the cabin thoughtlessly and in confusion, hurried up by the order of his senior officer on duty. When he heard the Captain's question, he thought what could it be five minutes before, but he could not find the answer.

"Let me see! Let me see! What was it 'five minutes before' to be told to the Captain?" he murmured questioning himself. The more he struggled to recollect, the more he was embarrassed.

"I say! What's the matter?" the Capitain asked.

"It is five minutes before sunset, Captain," Akiyama got out at last.

The reply was involuntary, born of a desperate situation. He wondered how he could make such a haphazard remark so fluently and naturally.

"I say! My boy," the Captain called, as he was coming out to the room. He went up on deck, and Akiyama followed him.

"What on earth is the matter?" the Captain questioned again, as he looked wonderingly at his young subordinate.

"You told me that it was five minutes before sunset. But the sun is still high," he continued.

With a start, Akiyama looked up at the sky and saw the sun shining bright over his head. He could not utter a word in explanation. He wondered why he had spoken such an absurdity. But it was no use repenting.

At this moment, he heard the senior officer on watch at the opposite side calling in a loud voice for the signalmen. Soon there was the sound of the bugle summoning the signalmen, and it resounded throughout the ship.

"What! it was five minutes before the roll-call," the Captain said.

The good natured commander looked at Akiyama and asked him with a smile; "What is the matter with you, Second Lieutenant Akiyama?"

Indeed, it was the roll-call at 4.45 in the afternoon. Akiyama felt awkward, put his hands in and out of his pockets, and scratched his head, when suddenly the pink envelope fell to the deck.

"Oh," he cried, and blushed. In consternation, he picked it up, but it was too late.

The Captain, who had caught sight of the love letter, burst out laughing. He laughed loud, shaking his great body, as if he had understood everything. The lieutenant on duty, standing beside the Captain, broke into laughter too, while Lieutenant Akiyama stood erect, with an indescribable look on his good looking face.

This story is told still in the gun-room of warship B. But the secret in the pink envelope was never told.

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The Editor's Diary

Feb. 16.—M. Paul Claudel, French Ambassador at Tokyo, having been appointed to the United States, is leaving Japan Feb. 17. To-day he said farewell through over the radio, to his Japanese friends.

Feb. 17.—The Metropolitan Police report that in 1926, there were 80,998 deaths in Tokyo and its suburban districts, which lie in its jurisdiction, showing a decrease from 87,576 recorded for 1925. The list of diseases, which proved fatal, is headed by phthsis with 7,423 cases, besides which there were 3,030 other tuberculous cases. Next comes apoplexy with 6,216 cases. Pneumonia is very close to apoplexy with 6,201 cases.

Feb. 18.—To-day at 3 p.m. the Japan Russian treaty regarding petroleum mining concessions in North Saghalien was formally signed at Moscow.

Feb. 20.—The reply of the Japanese Government sent on Feb. 19 to the United States Government concerning the latter's proposal to convene the second international disarmament conference was made public ar 5 p.m, to-day in Tokyo by the Foreign Office, after the note was handed by Foreign Minister Baron Shidehara to American Ambassador. MacVeagh one hour before. The note set forth Japan's willingness partake in the proposed conference.

Feb. 21—A telegram received by the Foreign Office from Japanese Ambassador. Matsudaira at Washington reports that the American Government was highly satisfied with the Japanese reply regarding the proposed second international disarmament conference.

Feb. 22.—H. M. the Emperor entertained at dinner at the Akasaka Palace the Papal Legate who had attended the Imperial funeral as the representative of the Pope.

Feb. 23.—Mr. U. Noda, Vice-President of the Seiyu Kai Party, died at 4.48 a.m. at the age of 75. He was a self-made man, having risen from obscurity, and had held the cabinet portfolios of Communications, and Commerce and Industry.

Feb. 24.—During January, there passed through the national clearing houses 2,857,300 bills, valued at 6,527,388,993 yen.

The Finance Department reports that at the end of January, 1927, the total specie held by Japan amounted to 1,346,000,000 yen 11,000,000 yen less than the figure at the end of 1926.

Feb. 25.—This morning Mr. Tai Ten-kyu a prominent figure in the Chinese National Party arrived in Tokyo. He came with the mission of seeking an understanding with the Japanese Government and people.

Feb. 26.—A milch-cow in Hachijo Island, Izu Province is reported to give daily 18.835 gallons of milk.

Feb. 27.—During 1926, there were in the districts under the jurisdiction of the Metropolitan Police, Tokyo 16,282 traffic accidents which injured 9,781 persons and killed 234 persons, a daily average of 44

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persons.

Feb. 28.—The Lower House of the Diet has been quiet since an understanding was reached between the leaders of the three biggest political parties. The Kensei Kai the government party has now entered into an agreement with the Seiyu-honto, one of the non-Government parties. This is believed to the first step to provide for the political situation in the event of the present Ministry being obliged to resign.

March 1.—For the last ten days of February, the foreign trade of Japan increased 8,686,000 yen in exports and decreased 9,788,000 yen in imports, as compared with the same period in 1926. For the same month, the total balance of foreign trade stood at 43,592,000 yen against Japan, showing a decrease from February, 1926.

Mr. Z. Nakamura, ex-Mayor of Tokyo, died. He was 61 years of age.

March 2.—The Lower House unanimously passed a resolution of thanks to the British and Belgian Diets for their sympathy with the Japanese nation regarding the demise of the late Emperor.

March 3.—In the *Official Gazette*, an Imperial rescript was promulgated, making November 3, anniversary of the birth of the Emperor Meiji, a national holiday in remembrance of the virtues of the great emperor and the glorious age of Meiji. The day will be known as the *Meiji-setsu*.

The Imperial Navy announces the despatch of the warship *Isuzu* and *Kawachi* to Shanghai, with a landing party of 500 men, to protect Japanese residents.

A welcome meeting for the dolls presented by American girls to Japanese girls was held in the Japan Youngmen's Hal outside the Meiji Shrine. It was a great success. Education Minister Okada, Foreign Minister Baron Shidehara, American Ambassador MacVeagh and other guests were deeply impressed.

March 4.—H.M. the Empress is announced officially to be enceinte.

March 5.—Baron Omori, Lord Steward to H.M. the Empress, died at the age of 72 on March 3.

March 6.—Professor S. Honda of the Agricultural College of the Tokyo Imperial University, an authority on forestry, will retire soon, as he has reached the age-limit of 60.

A class room of the Doshisha Girls' School in Kyoto caught fire. The whole building of the General Department of the school was destroyed. The damage is estimated at 120,000 yen.

At 6.28 p.m., a severe earthquake occurred in Osaka, Kyoto and vicinity. The northern part of the Province of Tango was the centre. The disaster is described on another page.

The earthquake was felt severely in Kobe. In the harbour, a tragedy occurred on the *California*, which was leaving the port that night, with an American thourist party. Several persons were going up the gangway of the steamer, when the earthquake threw them off. One woman passenger was killed, and others were seriously injured.

March 9.—The Bank of Japan made another reduction of its rates to-day, making the daily discount rate of commercial bills 1.6 sen.

March 10. — The Cabinet met to consider the American proposal for a 3-power disarmament conference. Foreing Minister Baron Shidehara expressed

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his view supporting the proposal. Navy Minister Admiral Takarabe desired more consideration of the question.

Dr. K. Yamagiwa of the Imperial Tokyo University is said to have invented a method of curing cancer after long study. He will make public a report on his experits at a national meeting of pathologists in April.

March 11. — Another Cabinet conference was held on the question of the disarmament conference.

March 13.—The Government submitted an additional general budget of 28,975,000 yen for the fiscal year 1927-1928 to the Diet, and when added to the previously presented main account, the total makes 1,759,000,000 yen, the most expensive Budget ever submitted to the Diet.

The national bonds of Japan are officially reported to be 5,193,413,000 yen as on February 28, 1927, consisting of 3,615,550,000 yen issued in Japan and 1,477,861,000 yen floated in foreign lands.

March 14.—To-day, Mr. Armour, Counsellor of the American Embassy, visited Foreign Minister Baron Shidehara at the Foreign Office and handed him a copy of the American Government's formal invitation to a 3-power disarmament conference, which was handed to the Japanese Ambassador at Washington on mach 12.

March 15.—Vice-Minister Kawasaki of the Home Department came back from a tour of inspection in the Province of Tango, the scene of the recent disastrous earthquake. He said the shock was more serious than that of the earthquake, which visited Tokyo and vicinity in 1923.

The funeral ceremony for Mr. Zeko Nakamura, Mayor of Tokyo last year.

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